

GENDERED DIFFERENCES IN JOB SATISFACTION: HOW MEN AND WOMEN
COPE WITH WORK AND FAMILY

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction research has been popular among mainstream media outlets. A simple Google News search turns up thousands of articles related to job satisfaction published in recent months. An article in the Washington Post indicates that federal workers' job satisfaction has dropped dramatically since the U.S. government shutdown and restart. Of concern is the fact that these low rates of job satisfaction will hurt employee retention and recruitment. One government analyst fears that this decrease in job satisfaction will result in older employees retiring and poor recruitment of talent for the future. An interesting point to note is that the article cites that there are demographic differences in the job satisfaction ratings. Employees born in 1945 or earlier have the highest morale and satisfaction in comparison to their younger counterparts (those born 1965 and 1980) having the lowest job satisfaction (Rein 2013).

Another article reports that Monster.com - one of the world's largest job postings websites - reported that Canadians top the world's job satisfaction rates. They did not however, pin job satisfaction down to one component, instead suggesting that job satisfaction comes from multiple components including income (CBC News 2013). TIME Magazine provides an article titled, "Five Reasons Your Job Is Making You Miserable." The article, citing a study conducted by Salary.com, suggests that

individuals are miserable because unsatisfying work makes them sick, they only work for money, they are stressed and overeating as a result, they are not committed to their work, and many workers feel as if they are being overworked (White 2013). Lastly, an article by the Associated Press suggests that job satisfaction improves with age. In collaboration with NORC (the organization that conducts the General Social Survey), they suggest that individuals over the age of 50, 90% of the time report being satisfied or somewhat satisfied with their jobs (Sedensky 2013).

While some of these news sources report studies that are peer-reviewed, some do not. This may result in misinformation or misinterpretation of data from other studies. More peer-reviewed data needs to be analyzed to determine which variables affect job satisfaction and to what degree. There is still debate in regards to the direction and effect of determinants such as race, age, education level, and job level. None the less, job satisfaction remains a hot topic in the media and the academic community.

This paper seeks to examine which variables contribute to job satisfaction and with a work-family conflict framework. Separate models will be run for men and women so that comparisons can be made between both groups. Using the 2010 General Social Survey (GSS), I examine what factors influence men and women's job satisfaction including: demographics, family, educational/occupational characteristics, and job characteristics. This study contributes to the existing literature by examining job satisfaction using a recent, large, representative sample in the United States.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature in regards to the determinants of job satisfaction is very broad and very mixed in its findings. In order to get a better organization of the literature, this paper seeks to divide possible determinants of job satisfaction into four models: demographics, family characteristics, educational and occupational characteristics, and job characteristics. The literature below provides a better understanding for this method of grouping.

Demographics

A sizeable portion of job satisfaction literature does not find differences between men and women in regards to job satisfaction, mostly because they find that women compare themselves to other women and men compare themselves to other men (Hodson 1989). Jurik et al. (1984) found that gender was not a key explanatory variable in determining job satisfaction. They found that job satisfaction for women came from their job position, suggesting that any differences in job satisfaction were not based solely on their gender. A study conducted by Hodson (1989) found that women had greater job satisfaction if they were employed in a “female-typed” job where they were not compared to their male counterparts. If woman had a mother who worked, they

expressed greater job dissatisfaction indicating that women often compare themselves to their mothers when judging their job satisfaction. Hodson was not able to determine if women are less vocal in their job dissatisfaction than men. When testing various theories regarding job satisfaction differences between men and women, Hodson was not able to find any support for them except for a reference group theory that suggests that women compare themselves to different groups than men when determining their job satisfaction. In opposition, a recent study conducted by Crowley (2013) found that men feel more dignified at work than women. Men hold jobs that provide more worker dignity, autonomy, and feelings of purpose and productivity in comparison to women; all variables that are linked to job satisfaction. In order to determine why there is no differences between job satisfaction in men and women, the work-family conflict theory can be used to test several models.

The literature for the relationship between age and job satisfaction tends to fall into two categories: those who believe that the relationship between age and job satisfaction is a positive linear relationship and those who believe that it is a U-shaped relationship. A study by Clark et al. (1996) found that age and job satisfaction is a U-shaped relationship. Their study suggests that job satisfaction starts at a moderation point in the early 20s and begins to drop until the early 30s. From there, job satisfaction increases until retirement. The researchers tested three different explanations for differences in job satisfaction based on age: job characteristics, work values, and non-job variables. They also added exploratory variables such as self-rated health and education into the analysis, but despite their addition, the relationship between age and job

satisfaction remained constant. When controlling for mental health, a relationship between age and job satisfaction remained. The researchers hypothesized that an explanation for the U-shape relationship between age and job satisfaction may be related to changing expectations about ones' career over time.

In contrast, a study conducted by Kalleberg and Loscoco (1983) found a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction. The authors looked at two possible explanations for age differences in job satisfaction: life cycle explanations and cohort explanations. Life cycle explanations can be defined as "individuals' maturation and aging over the course of their lives; the timing and sequence of social roles occupied by individuals during their life courses; and historical changes that may occur during people's lives," (Kalleberg and Loscoco 1983, 1). Cohort explanations can be defined as different birth cohorts will have gone through different processes of socialization and because of this, will have different conceptions of what they want to get out of their work. Using data from the 1972-1973 Quality of Employment survey, the authors found support for their hypothesis that job satisfaction increases as age increases due to job rewards and work values. They also found a direct impact of chronological age on job satisfaction showing that individuals will adapt to their work roles over time. Several other studies agree with this linear relationship (Wright and Hamilton 1978; Janson and Martin 1982).

The relationship between race and job satisfaction is also a relationship that has brought many mixed results. Mau and Kopischke (2001) looked at the relationship between race and job satisfaction and found that African Americans and Asian

Americans had lower job satisfaction than white Americans. To conceptualize job satisfaction, they used several variables including pay, employment benefits, job challenge, working conditions, opportunities for job promotion, job security, satisfaction with supervisors and coworkers, and educational benefits. Gold, Webb, and Smith (1982) found that blacks had much lower job satisfaction than whites. They believe this difference is due to racial differences in what individuals' wish to get out of their jobs.

Several studies have found similar relationships between race and job satisfaction, but the relationship was less clear and many other variables seemed to affect the relationship. Moch (1980) found that race has an effect on job satisfaction, but this relationship is dependent on many factors including job position and job hierarchy, and friendship patterns. Bartel (1981) used data from the National Longitudinal Surveys of Mature Men from the years 1966, 1969, and 1971 and found that although Blacks had lower job satisfaction than whites in 1966 and 1971, they had higher job satisfaction in 1969. From the results, he hypothesized that there is a relationship between the two variables, but there are other factors that influence this relationship.

In contrast, several studies found the opposite of the above studies. These studies found that there was no relationship between race and job satisfaction. Lim (2008) looked at library IT workers and found no relationship between race and job satisfaction. Campbell (2011) found a weak relationship between race and job satisfaction, but determined that the statement was too broad; the relationship could not be applied to all work or racial groups. Interestingly, Brenner and Fernsten (1984) found that blacks were more satisfied than whites when controlling for similar jobs, salary, and job rewards.

Weaver (1977) found race to be far less correlated with job satisfaction when other factors such as salary and job type were controlled for.

Family Characteristics

A study by Dolan (1987) looked at female nurses in a British hospital. She found that those who are married are less likely to suffer from burnout in the workplace. Lower rates of burnout are linked with higher job satisfaction. Similarly, Rogers and May (2003) found that positive marital satisfaction is linked to higher job satisfaction. Inversely, negative marital satisfaction is related to lower job satisfaction. A similar relationship was found for both men and women. Koutstelios (2001) found different results when looking at a sample of Greek teachers. He found that marital status has no significant effect on job satisfaction.

The literature regarding work/family conflict is strongly correlated with job satisfaction. Clark (2001) studied a group of 179 adults in diverse work and family situations and found that the flexibility of work was related to increase job satisfaction and increased family well-being. Interestingly, flexible work hours was found to not have an effect on job nor family satisfaction. When families had a large number of children, their work/family balance was lowered if they had supportive supervision. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found work-family conflict to be negatively related to both job and life satisfaction. While family to work conflict did not seem to cause negative effects, work to family conflict caused both job dissatisfaction and life dissatisfaction. The results appeared to be stronger for women, but the results were not as clear. Shockey and Singla (2011) found that work interfering with family led to lower job satisfaction

and family interfering with work led to lower life satisfaction. Interestingly, Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that work-family conflict had little effect on Latino poultry farmers.

Women showed little issue with work-family conflict except with physical labor.

The above studies suggest that work family conflict is related to job satisfaction as well as life satisfaction. The literature also indicates that women may be affected more so than men, but this relationship may need more research as it is not as clear.

Education and Occupation Characteristics

Not unlike findings above, the findings for relationships between education level and job satisfaction are mixed. A study done by Glenn and Weaver (1982) predicted that more education leads to greater job dissatisfaction. They found that their hypothesis was not supported for women and only weakly for men. When combined together, the total effect of education on job satisfaction is positive for both men and women, but it is much stronger for women than men. Rogers (1991) looked at the effects of education level on the job satisfaction of correctional officers. Controlling for age, race, sex, length of service, and rank, he found that there were no consistent findings that education level had an effect on job satisfaction. He found that high school graduates with no college education had more job satisfaction than those with a college degree. However, those with a college degree had higher job satisfaction than those who went to college and did not finish. In contrast, Jurik et al. (1987), when looking at a different sample of correctional officers, found a negative relationship between educational level and job satisfaction, suspecting that job expectations resulted in a lower job satisfaction level for the more educated. Ross and Reskin (1992) found that an increase in education led to

more job control, which then increased perceived job satisfaction. As a result however, job expectations were also increased, which resulted in a decrease in job satisfaction.

Logan et al. (1973) found that part-time and full-time workers have different expectations when coming to work and it is necessary to study those when looking at job satisfaction. Lee and Johnson (1991) found that full time workers have higher levels of organizational commitment than part-time workers and as a result, have higher levels of job satisfaction. This result did not hold however, when they looked at employees that did not have a preferred schedule. Eberhardt and Shani (1984) found that women who worked part-time had higher job satisfaction than their full-time counterparts. In contrast, Booth (2007) found that women prefer part-time work, but women with or without children are happy just to have a job and not care whether it is part-time or full-time. Pages (2009) found similar results when looking at Honduran men and women. Both men and women preferred to work full-time, indicating that being able to work part-time is a luxury they could not afford. The results held for both mothers with children and married women with no children.

Several researchers have found certain aspects of occupations are associated with higher job satisfaction, including occupational prestige and job tenure. For instance, Weaver (1977) found that occupational prestige is linked to higher job satisfaction when independent of all other variables such as age, gender, or job autonomy. Lacy et al. (1982) found that higher levels of occupational prestige lead to higher job satisfaction and higher satisfaction in “nonwork realms” as well. Additionally, several researchers believe that job tenure is a more accurate determinant of job satisfaction than age. Both

Bedeian et al. (1992) and Lee and Wilbur (1985) found that job tenure is a more stable measure than age when measuring job satisfaction. Duffy et al. (1998) found that longer job tenure is related to higher job satisfaction. Those who have been tenured longer at their job are less likely to have negative outcomes at work.

Income and the hours an individual works can also affect job satisfaction. Clark and Oswald (1996) found income to be negatively correlated job satisfaction. They hypothesized that job expectations may play a role in this relationship as the relationship changed when education was added to the model. As stated earlier, increased education leads to higher job expectations. Judge et al. (2010) found through a meta-analysis study, that income was only marginally related to job satisfaction. Witt and Wilson (2010) found that income was not related to increased job satisfaction among schoolteachers. The findings for the number of hours an individual worked were similarly mixed. Scandura and Lankau (1997) found that more flexible work hours is relate to higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment, especially for those with family responsibilities. Sparks et al. (1997) found that longer hours of work are related to ill-health.

Job Characteristics

Job Autonomy has long been seen as an important determinant of job satisfaction in the literature. DeCarlo and Agarwal (1998) found a positive relationship between job autonomy and job satisfaction when looking at American, Australian, and Indian salespersons. These results were echoed by Finn (2001) when looking at a sample of nurses in Brisbane, Australia and Illipoulou and White (2010) when looking at a sample

of nurses in Greece. A study conducted by Jin and Lee (2012) found that certain components of job autonomy were linked to higher job satisfaction. They included ease of taking time off during working and organization of daily work. Autonomy regarding the control of hours was found to be negatively associated with job satisfaction.

The last factor in consideration is social support at work. Hurlbert (1991) found that social networks do have some effect on job satisfaction, but the results were not “overwhelming.” There is increased job satisfaction for members of co-worker circles. It is possible that kinship networks cause more stress than improvement in job satisfaction. Another study by Bradley and Cartwright (2002) found that when looking at a sample of nurses, perceived support from their organization lead to greater job satisfaction. Support from managers and co-workers did not however, reduce job stress, which in turn lead to lower job satisfaction.

Most of the literature focusing on job security actually measures it by looking at job insecurity. Job insecurity is positively linked to turnover intentions (i.e quitting) and negative mood along with high blood pressure (Barling and Kelloway 1996). Job insecurity and job performance have also found to be negatively correlated indicating that as job insecurity increases, job performance declines. (Cheng and Chan 2007). Lastly, job insecurity has been found to be related to lower employee health and well-being (Hellgren and Sverke 2003).

Looking at the literature in relation to job satisfaction, it is clear that the findings are inconsistent under almost every variable. Part of the reason for this is due to the fact that many studies do not use a nationally generalizable data set or only study a small

subset of the population. Many research studies fail to take into account other important variables, either as moderators or controls. This research study seeks to clear up discrepancies in the job satisfaction literature by (1) using a national representative data set (GSS) and (2) considering a large list of independent variables as possible determinants of job satisfaction.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND MEASURES

Ordinary Least Squares Regression (OLS) will be used for the analysis because it creates a simple means to find the best fit line between the independent and dependent variables.

Data Set

The data used in this study is drawn from the 2010 GSS administered by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC). The GSS is a nationally representative survey, conducted by face-to-face interviews that lasted about 90 minutes, of non-institutionalized adults living in the United States. The target population was adults living in American households who speak English or Spanish. The total sample size of the 2010 GSS was 2044. For this analysis however, non-employed individuals were removed from the sample, bringing the total sample size to 1151 individuals. The sample was then divided into two groups: Males and Females. Males accounted for 542 individuals in the updated sample while females accounted for 609. This is done so that comparisons can be made between males and females.

Measures

Dependent Variable

“Job Satisfaction” is the dependent variable used in this analysis. Respondents were asked, “All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?” It is measured as a scale variable with values: 1-Not at all satisfied, 2 – not too satisfied, 3 – somewhat satisfied and 4 – very satisfied. Originally in the GSS, the variable was coded in reverse, but was recoded for the purpose this analysis.

Independent Variables

Several independent variables were used for this analysis. For Model 1, the demographic variables of “Race” and “Age” were used. Race was coded into two dummy variables: Black and Other race. Black was coded with the values: 1 – Black, 0 – All others, while Other race was coded with the values: 1 – Other Race 2 – All others. White individuals served as the reference group. Missing values were excluded from the analysis.

Model 2 consists of family related variables including marital status and number of children. Marital status was split into four dummy variables with “married” serving as the reference group. “Divorced” was coded with the values: 1 – Divorced and 0 – All others, “Widowed” was coded with the values: 1 – Widowed and 0 – All others, “Separated” was coded with the values: 1 – Separated, 0 – All others, and “Never married” was coded with the values: 1 – Never married, 0 – all others. Number of children is coded as a continuous variable with a range from 0-8 and a collapsed value of 8 or more.

Model 3 contains educational and occupational variables including years of education, part-time work status coded as a dummy variable with full-time work status as a reference group, occupational prestige, job tenure, income, and “hours worked in the last week.” Years of education was coded as a continuous variable with respondents’ answers ranging from 0 to 20. Part time work status was coded as a dummy variable with values: 1 – Part Time, 0 – full time. Full time served as the reference group. Occupational prestige was calculated by the GSS by using a combination of the U.S. Bureau of the Census three-digit occupation classification for 1970 and 1980, the two-digit Hodge, Siegel, Rossi prestige score, the Census Bureau’s three-digit industrial classifications for 1972-1990, and the NORC/GSS prestige scores (NORC Website 2014). Job tenure is measured as a continuous variable with the question asked, “How long have you worked in your present job for your current employer?” Responses ranged from less than 6 months (.25) to 50 years. Missing data was excluded from the analysis. Income was measured as a categorical variable with categories ranging from 1 – less than 1000 to 12 – 25000 or more. Lastly, hours worked in the last week was measured as a continuous variable with the question, “How many hours did you work last week, at all jobs?” Responses ranged from 1-89.

Model 4 contains job characteristic variables including job autonomy, social support, and job security. Job autonomy is a scale variable measured on a scale of 1-5, with the statement, “I am given a lot of freedom to decide how to do my own work.” Respondents answered from a range 1 – Not at all True to 5 – Very True. This variable was originally coded in reverse, but was recoded for purposes of this analysis. Social

support is measured on a scale of 1-5, with the question asked, “The people I work with can be relied on when I need help.” Respondents answered from a range 1 – Not at all True to 5 – Very True. This variable was also originally coded in reverse, but was recoded for purposes of this analysis. Lastly, job security is a scale variable measured on a scale of 1-5, with the statement “The job security is good.” Respondents answered from a range 1 – Not at all True to 5 – Very True. This variable was originally coded in reverse, but was recoded for purposes of this analysis.

Models and Analyses

To begin, cases were selected on respondents’ work status – only those who worked full time or part time were retained. This reduced the available cases from 2044 to 1151. OLS regression was run on four different models using sex as the selection variable. First, the models were run with “males” as the selected category and then run with “females.”

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics for the variables used in the analysis. Tables 2 and 3 provide the OLS regression models and the results for each model for males and females, respectively.

Results for OLS Regression

Model 1: Demographics

The results for these models are available in Tables 3 and 4. Age is statistically significant for males. Age and race are statistically significant for females. For males, for every one year increase in age, there is a 0.011 increase in job satisfaction, a finding that is statistically significant ($p < .001$). For females, for every one year increase in age, there is a .01 increase in job satisfaction, a finding that is also statistically significant ($p < .001$). Race is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction for men. However, for females, Black females have lower job satisfaction than white females ($b = -.0153$, $p < .10$) and females of all other races have lower job satisfaction than white females ($b = -.0298$, $p < .01$).

Table 1: *Descriptive Statistics (n=1151)*

	N	Mean	SD	Range
<i>Gender</i>				
Male	542	1.53	0.499	1
Female	609	1.53	0.499	1
<i>Demographic</i>				
White	897	0.7793	0.415	1
Black^	150	0.13	0.337	1
Other (Race)^	104	0.09	0.287	1
Age	1150	43.69	13.975	70
<i>Family</i>				
Married	553	0.4085	0.5	1
Divorced^	198	0.17	0.378	1
Widowed^	37	0.03	0.176	1
Seperated^	38	0.03	0.179	1
Never Married^	325	0.28	0.45	1
# of Children	1151	1.66	1.52	8
<i>Educational/Occupation</i>				
Years of Education	1149	13.99	3.042	20
Full-Time Employment				
Part-Time Employment^	234	0.2033	0.40263	1
Occupational Prestige	1125	44.24	14.023	69
Job Tenure	1128	7.9218	8.878	49.75
Income	1061	11.14	2.138	11
Hours Worked Last Week	1139	41.36	14.395	88
<i>Job Characteristics</i>				
Job Autonomy	1132	3.39	0.813	3
Social Support	1125	3.38	0.754	3
Job Security	1119	3.25	0.904	3

^Dummy Coded Variable

Model 2: Family Characteristics

Results for this model are found in Tables 2 and 3. Marital status and number of children are statistically significant for males while only marital status is statistically significant for females. Men who have never been married have lower job satisfaction than the reference group, married men ($b = -0.149$, $p < .10$). For every one additional child in a man's household, job satisfaction increases by 0.039 ($p < .10$). Females who have never married have lower job satisfaction than the reference group, married women ($b = -0.173$, $p < .05$). Number of children is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction for women.

Model 3: Educational/Occupational

Results for this model are found in Tables 3 and 4. Part-time work status, occupational prestige, and job tenure are statistically significant for males while occupational prestige, job tenure, and income are statistically significant for females. Male part time workers have lower job satisfaction than the reference group, male full time workers ($b = -0.239$, $p < .10$), a result that is statistically significant. For every one unit increase in occupational prestige for males, there is a 0.006 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .05$), a result that is also statistically significant. For every one year increase in job tenure for males, there is a 0.013 unit increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). Among females, the number of hours work per week is not a significant predictor of job satisfaction. For every one unit increase in occupational prestige for females, there is a 0.007 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .05$). For every one year increase in job tenure for females, there is a 0.016 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). Unlike for males for which

we find no statistical significance when looking at income, for every one unit increase in income for females, job satisfaction increases by 0.035 ($p < .05$).

Model 4: Job Characteristics

Results for this model are found in Tables 3 and 4. Job autonomy, social support at work, and job security are all statistically significant for males and females. For every one unit increase in job autonomy for males, there is a 0.281 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$), a statistically significant result. For every one unit increase in social support, there is a 0.186 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). For every one unit increase in job security, there is a 0.173 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). Likewise, for every one unit increase in job autonomy for females, there is a 0.197 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). For every one unit increase in social support for females, there is a 0.259 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$). Lastly, for every one standard unit increase in job security for females, there is a 0.223 increase in job satisfaction ($p < .001$).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Overall, the results show more similarities between men and women when looking at factors that affect their job satisfaction, than differences. Model 1 looked at demographic variables for both men and women. Age was a statistically significant factor affecting job satisfaction for both men and women, with increased age leading to higher job satisfaction. This finding is in line with previous research, which also suggests that older individuals are more satisfied with their jobs (Wright and Hamilton 1978; Janson and Martin 1982; Kalleberg and Loscoco 1983). The test to see if age has a U-shape relationship with job satisfaction was not found to be significant. While race was not statistically significant for males, it is statistically significant for females. White women have higher job satisfaction than black women and women of all other races. This finding finds some support in the literature, which also indicates that blacks and other minorities have lower job satisfaction than their white counterparts (Gold, Webb, and Smith 1982; Mau and Kopischke 2001). It is possible that other variables come into play when comparing men, women and race. There may be fewer job opportunities for minority women than minority men. The income of minority women may also be lower than for minority men. As stated above, income was a significant predictor of job satisfaction for women.

Model 2 looked at family characteristics. Marital status was statistically significant for both men and women. Both married men and married woman had higher job satisfaction than their never married counterparts. This finding is supported by the literature, which suggests that married individuals have higher job satisfaction (Dolan 1987; Rogers and May 2003). Number of children was a significant predictor of job satisfaction for men, but not women. For men, for every additional child a man had, job satisfaction would increase. I hypothesize that this has to do with traditional gender roles. For women, stress, work overload, and conflict increased significantly with every extra child in the home. This did not apply to men, who found higher job satisfaction than women (Lundberg et al. 1994).

Model 3 looked at educational and occupational characteristics. Part-time works status was only a significant predictor of job satisfaction for men. Men who had part-time work status had lower job satisfaction than the reference group, men who worked full time. I hypothesize this is once again due to traditional gender roles. Men may draw job satisfaction from the fact that they are the primary breadwinner in the household and as the literature suggests, they compare themselves to other men (Hodson 1989). The literature suggests that women see part-time work as preferable, but this is moderated by social class, so not all women seek to work part-time. This could suggest why no significant result was found for women (Eberhardt and Shani 1984; Booth 2007; Pages 2009). Occupational prestige and job tenure were found to statistically significant for both men and women, findings that are supported by past literature (Duffy et al. 1998; Beidan et al. 1992). Income was only found to be a statistically significant predictor for

women. Past literature suggests that income is not a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction (Judge et al. 2010). It is possible that income is positively related to job satisfaction for women due to job expectations. Women may take pride in being able to help support their families.

Model 4 looked at job characteristics. It was found that job autonomy, job security, and social support were all found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction for both men and women. For both men and women, all three factors had a positive relationship with job satisfaction. All three findings find support in past literature. The significance of these findings may be that for both men and women, being able to have say in their work, having a secure job, and having support at the job are the most important factors when finding satisfaction in their job.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Overall, this study makes an important contribution to the literature, showing that men and women are more similar in the factors that affect their job satisfaction than one might think. This study shows that men and women differ in race, part-time work status, income, and number of children, but are similar in the effects of age, marital status, occupational prestige, job tenure, job autonomy, job security, and social support. A benefit of this study is that it was able to use multiple models with a broad scope of factors. Past studies have only focused on a few factors.

Several changes could be made to improve future research. Open-ended questions could be used to interview groups of men and women to get a more detailed response of the factors that affect job satisfaction. An interesting analysis would be to break down the data by SES or social class to see what differences can be seen between working class, middle class, and upper class individuals. Lastly, this study looks at individuals in a wide variety of professions. It might be helpful to look at specific professions and job satisfaction. This could have important implications for several industries such as health care. Nurses' or doctors' job satisfaction could be analyzed as well as the effect of their job satisfaction on patient care.

Limitations of this study include that the data was collected by NORC, not myself, so not all of their data collection methods can be verified. Open-ended questions may be more beneficial for studying some aspects of job satisfaction as they provide more description. Multiple-choice questions may force respondents to choose an answer that does not best fit how they wish to answer. Some of the measures used are simplified such as job autonomy and job security. It might be helpful to develop scales for future research that are more complex in nature – such as combining multiple questions together to create a measure.

Overall, this study illustrates that both men and women have many similarities in which factors affect their job satisfaction. There is still much work that can be done to draw a consensus in job satisfaction research. With more knowledge on what causes job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, we can hopefully work to improving the quality of individuals' working life.

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